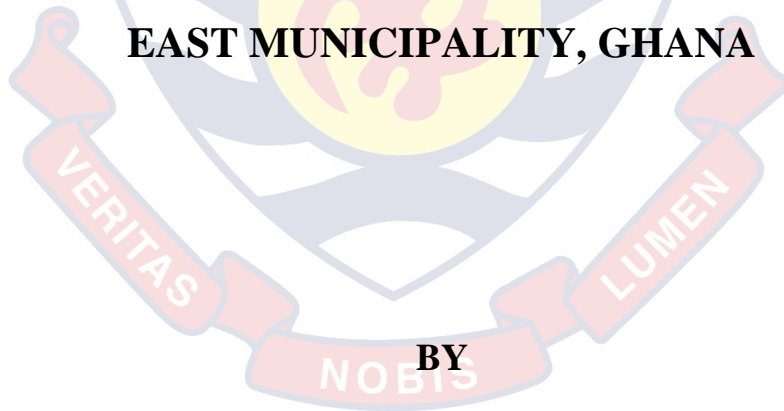


PRESBYTERIAN UNIVERSITY COLLEGE, GHANA

FACULTY OF DEVELOPMENT STUDIES

DEPARTMENT OF RURAL AND COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT

**ASSESSMENT OF ALTERNATIVE LIVELIHOODS FOR
MINING COMMUNITIES OF THE UPPER DENKYIRA
EAST MUNICIPALITY, GHANA**



**BY
MAVIS ADOFOA OWIREDU**

SEPTEMBER 2019

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MAVIS ADOFOA OWIREDU

Dissertation submitted to the Faculty of Development Studies, Presbyterian University
College, Ghana in the partial fulfillment of the requirements of Master of Arts Degree in
International Development Studies

SEPTEMBER 2019

DECLARATION

Candidate's Declaration

I hereby declare that this dissertation is the result of my own original research and that no part of it has been presented for another degree in this University or elsewhere.

Candidate's Signature: Date:

Name:

Supervisor's Declaration

I hereby declare that the preparation and presentation of the dissertation were supervised in accordance with the guidelines on supervision of dissertation laid down by the Presbyterian University College Ghana

Supervisor's Signature: Date:

Name:

ABSTRACT

This study is conducted to assess the alternative livelihood in mining communities of the Upper Denkyira East Municipality, Ghana. this study sought to address four specific objectives; to explore the collaboration that exists between the District and the MLNR/ MDF in implementing the alternative livelihood programme, to examine the economic activities that were in place before oil production, to analyze the influence of alternative livelihood on beneficiaries, and to explore the challenges encountered in the implementation of the intervention. The study employed interview schedule to collect data from all beneficiaries of the ALP in the Upper Denkyira East Municipality whereas in-depth interview guide was employed for key stakeholders. Results obtained were analyzed using Statistical Package for Service Solutions (SPSS). The main findings indicate that most of the beneficiaries were generally satisfied with the Oil Palm Production as alternative livelihood. Also, the beneficiaries indicated the ALP was preferred to their previous jobs. There was collaboration between the Upper Denkyira East Municipal Assembly and the Ministry of Lands and Natural Resources/ Minerals Development Fund in the implementation of the ALP. The main challenge met by the Ministry of Lands and Natural Resources/ Minerals Development Fund in effecting the ALP was minimal cooperation from chiefs. Based on these findings, it was recommended that the Ministry of Lands and Natural Resources/ Minerals Development Fund should broaden the base of the projects under the ALPs to other communities within the Municipality.

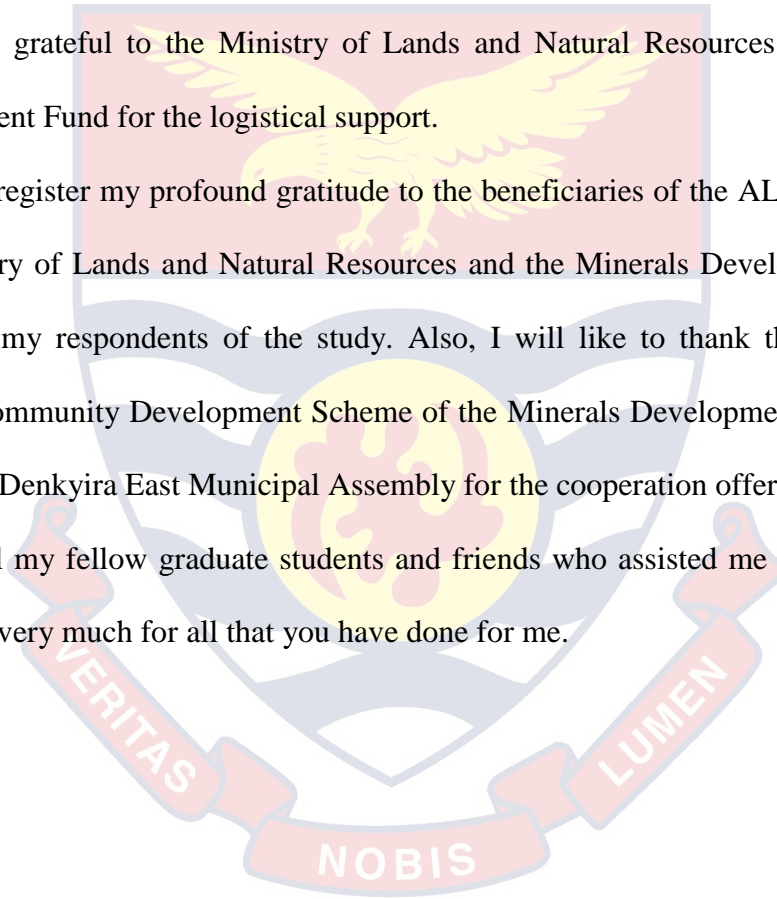
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Finally, all my fellow graduate students and friends who assisted me in this study I say thank you very much for all that you have done for me.



DEDICATION

I dedicate this work to my lovely husband and my children.

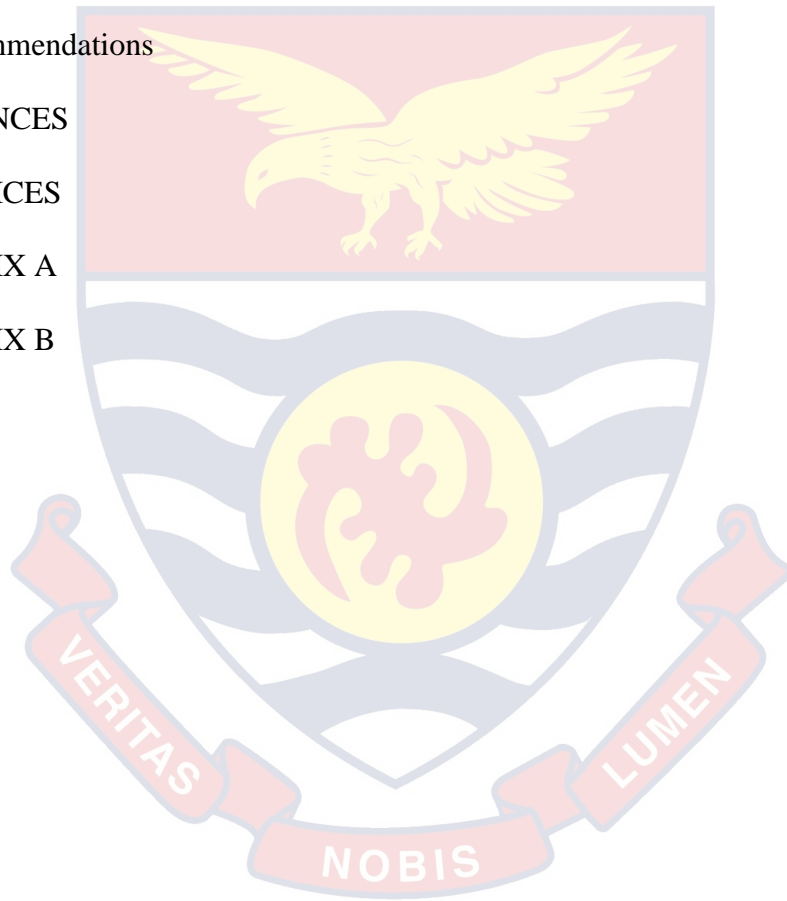


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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

| | |
|------|---|
| MLNR | Ministry of Lands and Natural Resources |
| MDF | Minerals Development Fund |
| ALP | Alternative Livelihood Programme |
| OPP | Oil Palm Production |
| IDI | In-depth Interview |
| IMF | International Monetary Fund |
| MCE | Municipal Chief Executive |
| MOFA | Ministry of Food and Agriculture |
| ILO | International Labor Organization |
| SAP | Structural Adjustment Programme |
| SLA | Sustainable livelihood Approach |
| SPSS | Statistical Product and Service Solutions |
| UN | United Nations |



CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background to the Study

A livelihood comprises the capabilities, assets (including both material and social resources) and activities required for a means of living. A livelihood is sustainable when it can cope with and recover from stress and shocks and maintain or enhance its capabilities and assets both now and in the future, while not undermining the natural resource base (Chambers & Conway, 1991). In Indonesia for example, although only contributing around 14 percent to GDP, agriculture provides employment for over 41 percent of the Indonesian population and provides around two-thirds of rural household income. The Oil Palm Industry is a significant contributor to rural household income.

From an economic perspective, livelihood is an occupation, work or other means by which one earns income to meet the necessities of life (Asong *et.al.* 2000). Agriculture which is widely practiced and understood has been identified to be a useful starting point for the development of livelihood (Adkins, 2004). However, the National Development Planning Commission (NDPC) of Ghana (2004) reports that households relying heavily on agriculture for their livelihoods are vulnerable in particular to climatic shocks, unstable markets and rising prices of agricultural inputs. Ghana is gifted with large mineral wealth such as gold, manganese, diamond, bauxite, limestone, silica salt and salt which are being exploited in commercial quantities, with gold representing by far the most important mineral mined. There is also growing potential for commercial gas and oil exploitation, bolstered by the announcement of significant discoveries in June 2007 (Akabzaa, 2007). There have been numerous efforts to harness mineral resources for

national development through the promotion of foreign investment. The World Bank and the International Monetary Fund (IMF) indicates that the sector has grown most remarkably since Ghana signed on to the Structural Adjustment Programme (SAP).

The mining industry in Ghana has in past years taken an indifferent attitude to the impacts of its activities; operating in areas without social legitimacy, causing major devastation, and then leaving when the area has been exhausted of all economically valuable resources (Jenkins, 2004). Cost benefit language has often been used to excuse the damage caused because it is outweighed by the overall financial benefits (Jenkins, 2004).

Negative livelihood impacts resulting from mining activities are more pervasive among the most vulnerable segments of the society (Akabzaa, 2000). The environmental impact of mining includes erosion in the environment, formation of sinkholes, loss of biodiversity, and contamination of soil, groundwater and surface water by chemicals from mining processes. Besides the creating of environmental damage, the contamination resulting from leakage of chemicals also affects the health of the local population. Some mining methods may have significant environmental and public health effects.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

Most of the mining communities in Ghana face various mining induced problems. The day to day environmental threats brought about by the mining activities results in both short term and long-term health risks. The residents are also left to wallow in abject poverty after the mining companies have claimed all that there is for them to rely on for daily survival (Temeng & Abew, 2009). This, the mining consortiums normally claim are taken care of by royalties paid to chiefs, which in turn does not get to the residents.

Amidst pressure from international organizations and civil societies, the mining companies have begun to show commitment to the wellbeing of residents in their catchment areas (Temeng & Abew, 2009). In view of this, different programmes are designed by the mining companies to improve on the livelihoods of the residents of such areas. These normally take the form of infrastructural development, donations to charities and implementation of livelihood programmes (such as introducing residents to fish farming, pig farming, provision of farming gear and equipment among others) that will ensure well-being of the residents.

In line with the Minerals Development Fund's (MDF) object of promoting Local Economic Development projects and Alternative Livelihood Projects in Communities affected by mining activities, (MDF Act 2016) it has introduced the Oil Palm Plantation programme to develop the mining communities with the Upper Denkyira East Municipality being part of such mining communities.

However, despite the efforts by the mining companies, it is still widely speculated that unemployment and poverty levels in some of the mining communities in the Upper Denkyira East, are among the highest in the country (Temeng & Abew, 2009).

Also, it is not clear how much has been achieved since the inception of the programme and the impact it has had on the residents of its catchment area. This study therefore seeks to assess the Alternative Livelihood Programme (ALP) that have been introduced by MNLR / MDF in the Upper Denkyira East Municipality.

1.3 Objectives of the Study

The main objective of the study is to assess the influence of the Alternative Livelihood Programme initiated by the government through the Ministry of Lands and Natural Resources with Funding from the Minerals Development Fund.

1.4 Specific Objectives

1. To explore the collaboration that exists between the District and the MLNR/ Minerals Development Fund in implementing the oil palm production programme.
2. To examine the economic activities that were in place before oil palm production.
3. To analyze the influence of alternative livelihood on beneficiaries.
4. To explore the challenges encountered in the implementation of the intervention.

1.5 Research Questions

The following research questions were formulated to solve the problem.

1. What collaboration exists between the District and the MLNR/ Minerals Development Fund in implementing the oil palm production programme?
2. What economic activities were in place before oil palm programme?
3. What is the influence of alternative livelihood on beneficiaries?
4. What challenges are encountered in the implementation of the intervention?

1.6 Significance of the Study

This study examines the influence, both positive and negative, that oil palm production in mining communities have brought upon the livelihoods of farmers, it is envisaged that the report of this study become useful working document for addressing issues of sustainable

livelihoods in mining communities. It is also expected that the report provides a significance guideline for future research into mining and rural livelihoods.

The discussions and results from the study may serve as a guide to the Ministry of Lands and Natural Resources/ The Minerals Development Fund on how the beneficiaries perceive the programme. This could help the Ministry adopt measures so as to help deliver a positive impact on the lives of inhabitants of mining communities.

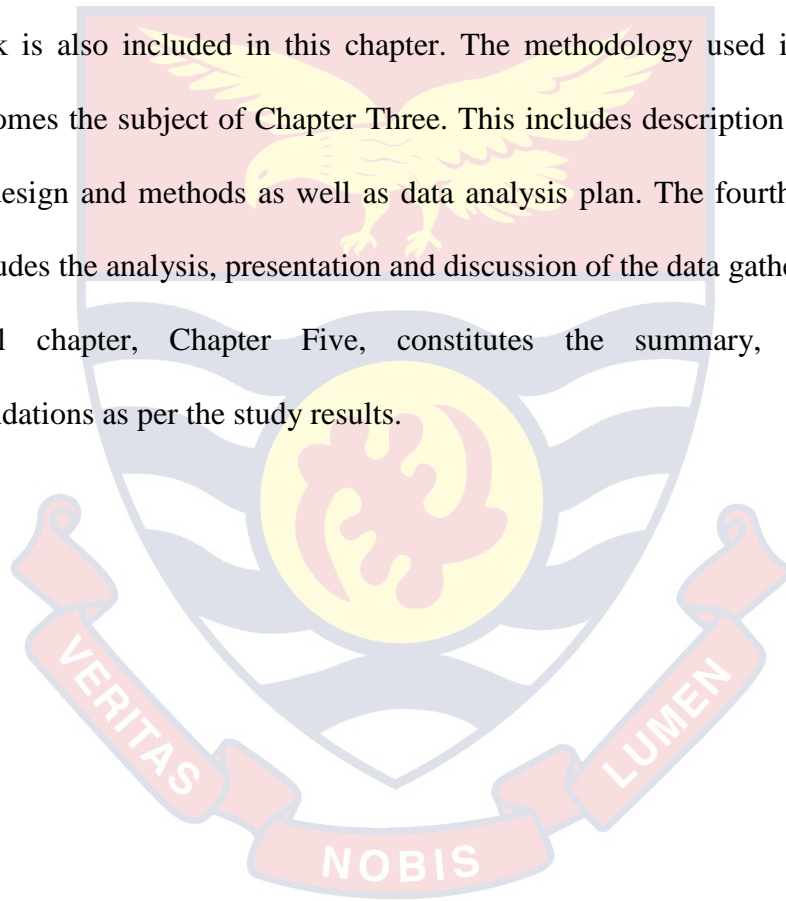
In connection with the above, the findings of the study will assist the MLNR/MDF to improve on the current ALP programme. The project if realized to be doing well, can be sustained to enhance the benefits whiles at the same time improving on the shortfalls of the programme. Lastly, the recommendations from these findings can be used to improve on similar projects elsewhere in the country.

1.7 Scope of the Study

The geographical scope of the study was limited to Upper Denkyira East Municipality in the Central Region, Ghana. Since this is the main operational area and the Municipal the alternative livelihood programme was implemented first, and for that matter will give in-depth insights into ALPs in the country. The contextual scopes of the study will however, focus on beneficiaries of Alternative Livelihood Programme implemented by the MLNR/MDF as well as implementers of the Alternative Livelihood Programmes. The beneficiaries will be people who are involved in the Oil Palm Production in the selected mining communities in the Upper Denkyira East Municipality.

1.8 Organization of the Study

The study is structured into five chapters. Chapter One contains the background to the study, research problem, research questions and objectives, the significance of the study, definition of key terms and chapter organization. Chapter Two has to do with the review of literature on relevant topics on alternative livelihood programmes implemented elsewhere in the world, models and theories that underpin such study. The conceptual framework is also included in this chapter. The methodology used in conducting this study becomes the subject of Chapter Three. This includes description of the study area, research design and methods as well as data analysis plan. The fourth chapter, Chapter Four, includes the analysis, presentation and discussion of the data gathered from field. The final chapter, Chapter Five, constitutes the summary, conclusions and recommendations as per the study results.



CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

2.1 Introduction

In this part, the theoretical approach of the study is explained. The theory base of the research is the Sustainable Livelihood Approach, with the Livelihood Model giving the study the framework for analysis.

2.2 Concept of Alternative Livelihood in Mining

2.2.1 *Effects of mining on the livelihood of residents*

The adverse environmental and social impacts of mining in sub-Saharan Africa are well documented (Davidson, 1993; United Nations (UN), 1996; International Labour Organization (ILO), 1999; Kitula, 2006; Fisher, 2007). In Ghana in particular, the industry has experienced unprecedented growth in recent years, bringing with it many problems that the authorities have struggled to address (Amankwah & Anim-Sackey, 2003; Hilson & Porter, 2005).

Mining has generally been noted to account for changes in both the physical landscape and natural resources hence affecting the daily lives of people living in mining areas (Aryee, 2001). In fact, the argument of whether mining is indeed a panacea to economic problems on most mining communities have been deeply questioned (Aryee, 2001). In most cases, the benefits of mining often largely accrue to the national economy and to the development of most urban infrastructure to the detriment of the more remote rural and peri-urban mining towns. Problems that emanate from such situations are compounded by wrong signals eternal wealth which is sent to the populations of other settlements who troop to the mining centres in search of the non-existing wealth (Hilson & Yakovleva,

2007). This increases the population of the mining centres substantially without any improvement in the means of livelihoods but instead, deterioration.

Mining takes a large share of the land area of the inhabitants of the mining areas. These lands are usually the fertile ones relied on by the residents (Aryee, 2001). In Ghana, for instance, by 2006, 13.1% of the country's land area was under concession to mining and mining explorations companies (Ghana Chamber of Mines, 2006). In areas such as Tarkwa, as much as 70% of the total land area is under concession mining and two thirds of the entire Wasswa West District (Ghana Chamber of Mines, 2006). This result in community dislocations and the taking away of arable lands as most of these mining centres in Ghana have their traditional economic activities as farming. In 2007 for instance, there were nine large scale mines in the country, the construction and expansion of which had been responsible for widespread community dislocations (Banchirigah, 2008). An account is also given between 1990 and 1998 where mining investment in Tarkwa resulted in the displacement of 14 farming communities with a combined population of over 30,000 while a recent one in Ahafo South displaced 9500 subsistence farmers (Planning Alliance, 2005). In Tanzania, 400,000 people were evicted in one community alone to allow for the development of a large- scale gold mine project (Curtis & Lissu, 2008). All these culminate in depriving the residents of mining communities of their means of livelihoods.

A further deprivation of the residents of their livelihoods is the pollution of water bodies, the felling of trees as well as the infiltration of the community with dust and other mining chemicals that have long term health implications for them. The aggregated effects of these are that the residents are indeed worse off with mining than before (Aryee, 2005) by

making them very vulnerable. However, people like Hilson and Pardie (2006) tend to disagree with this assertion by indicating mining can sometimes provide the impetus for the conservation of the environment through the provision of funding. Whatever the situation is, it is clear that mining substantially deprives the residents of mining communities of their livelihoods and that the benefits cannot make for the mass losses hence such mining companies need to provide an integrated means of alternative livelihood to the residents.

2.2.2 Approaches to alternative livelihoods

The various effects of mining on the lives of residents in mining centres, have led to a unified voice calling for a more responsible approach on the part of the mining companies and their national governments to provide the residents with dignified means of sustaining themselves (Banchirigah, 2008). In view of this, many mining corporations around the world as well as national governments begun to design alternative livelihood programmes for the residents of their mining areas.

Apparently, this idea of alternative livelihood is not only limited to the mining sector. Many other industries such as forestry, fishing, oil drilling, and construction are all in the business of practicing alternative livelihood programmes (Bush, 2009). This measure is often adopted as a stop gap measure by the industry giants in order to evade criticisms of neglecting the inhabitants and abandoning their corporate social responsibilities. It must however, be mentioned that it has been successfully planned and implemented in some cases where impacts on the well-being of the residents have been substantially positive (Aryee, 2001).

In implementing such programmes, different approaches have been adopted depending on the available resources, the residents' needs and capacity as well as the overall goal of the implementing agency. The main goal of alternative livelihood programmes has remained to ensure the improvement of standard of living of residents through providing them with alternative income sources.

Most of the alternative livelihood programmes have adopted approaches that are economic in outlook. This approach is by far the most followed and manifest it in different forms. It ranges from the legalization of artisanal mining (galamsey), training in traditional crafts, and alternative farming methods.

With all these approaches, examples drawn from different parts of the world indicate mix results. In Bolivia, an approach that has been very much mentioned is the economic (Banchirigah, 2008). With this approach, residents of mining communities have been trained in alternative economic activities such as new and improved farming methods (Banchirigah, 2008). This was often complemented by provision of start-up incomes as well as fertilizers and insecticides for their farms. Markets to their farm outputs are catered for by various marketing organizations formed by mining companies and provided with capital to purchase such produce and transport them to nearby market centres. Storage facilities were also provided to help salvage situations where there was excess supply of farm products.

Similar approach has been adopted in Tanzania where residents are trained in animal (sheep, goats, grass cutter etc) rearing as alternative means of livelihoods (Curtis and Lissu, 2008). Offices were created to separately cater for such investment issues. Advice

is first given to the residents before training them and subsequently offered them monetary assistance to invest into such ventures.

The approach in Uganda, which is an emerging gold mining country in Africa, has not been different. The promotion of local traditional crafts and the training of the residents to take advantage of the emerging tourism trade in such communities have been the agenda of such alternative livelihood approach in Bolivia.

Alternative livelihood programmes have mostly been economic in outlook (Kitula, 2006). This has been attributed to the nature of the perceived needs created by mining and also because mining itself is an economic activity. It is assumed that the only thing the residents will be expecting from mining should be economic in outlook.

One interesting dimension that has emerged over the years regarding such ALP approach is the issue of artisanal mining or popularly called 'galamsey' in Ghana. The issue of artisanal mining has confronted both governments and mining companies for years. Various approaches have been taken to curb artisanal mining to no avail (Hilson, 2009). Hilson (2009), Bush (2009), and Aubynn (2009) have all observed that instead of governments and mining companies concentrating their efforts to find alternative means of livelihood for residents, such efforts should rather be geared towards training the local residents to pursue artisanal mining as an alternative livelihood approach. In a study conducted by Tschakert (2009) in Noyem in Ghana, he observed that about 90% of the residents involved in 'galamsey' were not willing to abandon it for any other alternative source of livelihood. This he observed was due to the fact that most of the livelihood projects implemented for the residents are assumed rather than what the residents really want to engage in. Also, the residents view the other sources of income generating

activities as being second to ‘galamsey’ and for that matter will eventually return to it no matter the ALP implemented.

2.2.3 Reasons accounting for the failure of Alternative Livelihood Programmes

Even though ALPs have been welcomed by various governments and organizations as a panacea to at least the economic woes of residents of mining communities due to the mining activities, the key question that has bedevilled all ALPs has been associated with their sustainability. Most ALPs have been wonderfully planned and implemented and have benefitted residents only to fumble in later years. In view of this Tschakert (2009) therefore argued that ALPs are nothing but approaches by mining companies and host governments to get their people to ‘shut up’ and assimilate the consequences of mining without alarming the outside world.

The failures of ALPs have been attributed to various reasons. However, certain key approaches have been found to be on the basis that may have contributed to the unsustainability of ALPs.

One of the reasons that has been discussed in the literature is the imposition of ALPs on the residents without a measure of what the residents need are (Tschakert 2009). Once mining has taken away the means of livelihood from the residents, it is assumed that residents would engage in one economic activity or the other in order to survive. Without much hesitation, the mining companies based on their capabilities and what they deem fit introduce economic activities without consulting the would-be beneficiaries. However, it has been argued that economic activities are functions of cultural and social make-ups of societies (Aryee, 2004) and transition from one traditional economic activity has to be internally driven without external force. Subsequently, the residents do not feel the bound

that existed between their traditional economic activities which mining has squashed and that being imposed on them by the mining concessions hence their failure to succeed.

Another, reason that can be cited is lack of participatory approach adopted by the mining companies in introducing ALPs. To be successful with the introduction of interventions, a local participatory approach has been deemed ideal (Fraser, 2000). By involving the intended targets of the ALP, the targets get to make choices on the alternative livelihoods according to community attachment and resources. This ensures that the residents patronize the alternative economic activities that are introduced under the ALP. However, in the case of some mining companies, ALPs are designed and introduced without involving the residents, which does not sustain the ALP. For instance, a study conducted in Noyem in Ghana by Tschakert (2009) indicated that only two of the alternative livelihood projects mentioned by the residents were part of the ALPs that have been introduced with eight (8) projects mentioned by the residents which were not included in the ALP. Obviously, such ALP projects are likely to last a while.

The last among the most acknowledged reasons for the failure of ALPs has to do with the fact that most ALP projects do not take into account the local resources available (Tschakert, 2009). These resources may include the skill level of the residents as compared to the skill requirements of the intended ALP, the natural resources as well as the support systems available that may enhance the ALP. All these may account for the success or failure of the projects.

Implementers of ALPs must therefore acknowledge that alternative livelihood programmes are not just function of the economic system but integrated sets of human life encompassing the social, economic, cultural and traditional capacities.

2.3 Theoretical model

In this part, the theoretical approach of the study will be explained. The theoretical base of the research is the Sustainable Livelihood Approach, with the Livelihood Model giving the study the framework for analysis.

2.3.1 Applied Livelihood Model

A number of Livelihood studies have used the livelihood framework particularly the Sustainable Livelihood Approach (SLA) giving it prominence in development thinking (Shankland, 2000). Consequently, a number of different SLAs have emerged (Ashley & Carney, 1999). However, most rely on analytical frameworks which owe its roots to the version developed by Institute for Development Studies (IDS) Sustainable Livelihoods Programme (Scoones, 1998) and subsequently adapted by the United Kingdom Department of International Development.

This study requires an analysis to provide a basis from which external factors such as those provided by Mining Companies can be assessed as to whether or not they enable the reinforcement or changing of such interactions.

Therefore, a better analytical tool for doing so is the Sustainable livelihood Approach (SLA). SLA provides a framework through which people can be recursively studied from their own livelihood practices. It is an approach that builds on people-centeredness taking into account what they have and do as agents for, rather than victims of, their own change. This is because, as Long (1997, p.23) stresses that:

“Livelihood best expresses individuals and groups struggle to make a living, attempting to meet their various consumptions and economic necessities, coping with uncertainties, responding to new opportunities, and choosing between different value possibilities”

From Long's assertion, livelihood as a struggle is about social relations where people struggle to make a living. In this process, first, people (as actors) interact with rules of their society (structures) to either reinforce or challenge it. Second, in the process of making a living, resources are accessed, used, and transformed. Finally, a given livelihood practice has micro, meso and macro interactions. This multi-dimensionality that de Han and Zoomers (2005) refer to as 'Pandora's box provides a basis for evaluating how external factors as programmes intervention enables or constrains change within a given people's livelihood practices.

Hilson and Porter (2005) summarizes this by noting that the central objective of SLA was 'to search for more effective methods to support people and communities in ways that are more meaningful to their daily lives and needs, as opposed to ready-made interventionist instruments'. By implication, this analytical tool provides better basis for understanding what the people are and what they desire.

However, the full details of the SLA will be discussed herein. For instance, Banchirigah (2008) noted some key weaknesses of the SLA as related to: the limitedness of vulnerability context, reliance on multiplier effects and unresolved question of sustainability. Beall (2002) argued that the focus of household strategies excludes the middle level groups (Village, community, compound, family or inter-household confederation) that people use in order to organize a living. Kitula (2006) shows that, the livelihood approach is trapped in an actor-structure dilemma given that its people-centeredness inclined on the narrow instrumental *homo economicus* principle. They conclude that the SLA framework needs revisiting because of the complex dynamics of livelihood systems. They call for a processual perspective that puts people and their

actions at the centre of analysis but at the same time considers these actions as the result and the constituent of broader and longer-term processes. They thus advocate for livelihood research to capture and make visible both the synchronic and dynamics at play in the interaction between people and their environment on the one hand, and the accompanying change over time on the other. Similarly, de Han and Zoomers (2003) have pointed at the fact that although the livelihood approach has transcended the ‘man-land’ relations, its micro-orientation shuns the role of globalization in local development. They then call for a deep rooted and dispersed livelihood approach if its principles of people-centeredness, holisticity and multi-dimensionality are to have meaning in local development.

Concretizing these criticisms and pointing at a breakthrough in using the SLA, de Han and Zoomers (2005) elaborate on livelihood as multi-goal driven, diversified in context and multi-located. Yet, they note that the approach differs from apolitical orientation typically stemming from the narrow conceptualization of livelihoods as the fundamental questions of access are downplayed. Such multi-dimensionality, they argue, is characterized by structural differentiation. Who has what (assets) and how (access), does what (strategies), and gains what, (outcomes) remain fundamental questions that cannot be devoid in people’s livelihood?

2.3.2 The livelihood approach

Livelihood comprises the capabilities, assets (stores, resources, claims and access) and activities required for a means of living. (Chambers & Conway, 1992) A livelihood is sustainable when it copes with and recover from stress and shocks, maintain or enhance its capabilities, and assets, and provide sustainable livelihoods opportunities for the next

generation: and when it contributes net benefits to other livelihoods at the local and global levels and in the short and long terms (Chambers & Conway, 1992, p.7).

While the above definition refers to livelihood as the way people *make* a living and derive meaning out of it, major refinements have been added to it by Blaikie, Cannon, Davis and Wisner (1994) who stress ‘actors’ command over resources, Sherraden’s (1991) concern for resource use or exchange to satisfy needs, Ellis (2000) qualification of the ‘role of organizations, institutions, and social relations in resource access’ and Bebbington’s (1999) notice of ‘access to public services’. Therefore, livelihood means: actors’ behavior with respect to holding, using and transforming assets into productive activities for a valued livelihood outcome. Thus, while assets are factors of production, representing the capacity of the holder to engage in activities and derive meaning from it, activities are ex ante production flows of assets, and capabilities are outcomes that is the ex post flows of assets and activities (Sherraden, 1991).

From the above brief introduction, three things feature prominently, livelihood assets, livelihood strategies and livelihood outcomes. These are explained below.

2.3.3 Livelihood assets

Foremost, it should be noted that the term ‘asset’ is used synonymously with capital and resources in the livelihood debate. While different people use different asset classifications, this study likes the broader classification of de Han (2000) and Ellis (2000) of assets (private and communal) into human, natural, physical, financial, and social assets. Importantly, assets are the basis for production, consumption and investment. They represent the stock of wealth of an actor (Sherraden, 1991).

Equally, actors' asset portfolio reflects their capacity for maximizing well-being, present and in the future (Corbett, 1988), to respond to shocks and stresses. Moser's asset vulnerability framework that models household vulnerability as a function of 'the number, diversity and value of assets it owns (and have access to) exemplify this fact (Moser, 1998).

Assets are presented as a starting point for analysis because they are '..... what the poor have, rather than what they do not have....' (Moser, 1998); a fundamental shift in looking at actors beyond being poor, vulnerability, and passive victims but as active agents whose actions determine their livelihood activities and status. Bebbington (1999) argues that assets transcend use value per se since they are not merely the means through which actors make a living; they also give meaning to actors' world. He points out that, assets are not simply resources that people use in building livelihoods: they give people capability to be and to act. Therefore, assets are not only things that allow survival, adaptation and poverty alleviation: they are also the basis for people to change the rule that govern the control, use and transformation of resources.

Inevitably, assets are scarce, have spatial differences, and accessing them are bound by rights that create access limitations and inequalities. The end resource is choice differentiation and conflict (Leach, 1999). Bebbington (1999) reiterates the importance of access to assets as a determinant of livelihood strategies, and a mechanism through which resources are distributed and claimed, and through which the broader social, political, and market logistics governing the control, use and transformation of resources are either reproduced or changed. In view of this, Beall (2002: 72) notes that 'proximity to resources means very little when access to them is denied'.

2.3.4 Livelihood strategies

While assets are the engine for action, livelihood strategy refers to the ways and means with which actors put assets to use. Actors adopt a given strategy (consciously or unconsciously) depending on their asset-portfolio, needs, experiences and opportunities (Ellis, 2000). Within the SLA, three broad clusters of livelihood strategies are identified. These are: agricultural intensification / intensification, livelihood diversification sequencing to meet normal, coping, adaptive, or enhancing strategies (Ellis, 2000; Chen & Dunn, 1996). Broadly, these are seen to cover the range of options open to people. Either you gain more of your livelihood from agriculture (including aquaculture) through processes of intensification (more output per unit area through capital investment or increases in labour inputs) or intensification (more land under cultivation), or you diversify to a range of off-farm income earning activities, or you move away and seek a livelihood, either temporarily or permanently, elsewhere. Or, more commonly, you pursue a combination of strategies together or in sequence. Identifying what livelihood resources (or combinations of 'capital') are required for different livelihood strategy combinations is a key step in the process of analysis. For example, successful agricultural intensification may combine, in some circumstances, access to natural capital (example, land, water) with economical capital (example, technology, credit), while in other situations, social capital (example, social networks associated with drought or labour sharing arrangement) may be more significant. Understanding in a dynamic and historical context, how different livelihood resources are sequenced and combined in the pursuit of different livelihood strategies is therefore critical.

Unravelling the connections between such complex and dynamic processes and the outcomes of different strategy combinations is therefore a key part of any investigation of sustainable livelihoods. One step in any such analysis requires an unpacking of each of the three core strategies to distinguish different dynamics and outcomes (Scoones, 1999). Drawing on reviews of wider literature, the following distinctions (or, more accurately, continua) can be seen:

- Agricultural intensification/intensification- between capital-led (supported often by external inputs and policy-led) and labour-led (based on own labour and social resources and a more autonomous process) intensification (Carswell, 1997).
- Livelihood diversification- between an active choice to invest in diversification for accumulation and reinvestment, and diversification aimed at coping with temporary adversity or more permanent adaptation of livelihood activities, when other options are failing to provide a livelihood (Hussein & Nelson, 1998). Diversification therefore may involve developing a wide income earning portfolio to cover all types of shocks or stress jointly or the strategy may involve focusing on developing responses to handle a particular type of common shock or stress through well-developed coping mechanisms (Scoones, 1998).
- Migration- between different migration causes (example, voluntary and involuntary movement), effects (example, reinvestment in agriculture, enterprise or consumption at the home or migration site) and movement patterns (example, to or from different places).

A key issue in the analysis of livelihood strategies is the scale at which an assessment takes place (Scoones, 1998). Livelihood strategies, for example, can be described at an individual, household and village level, as well as at regional or even national levels. But there are differences evident between scale levels in terms of the net livelihood effect (Hussein & Nelson, 1998). For an individual it may be best to pursue a particular set of livelihood strategies in combination, but these may have either positive or negative impacts on other household members or the broader community (Scoones, 1998).

For instance, a successful agricultural intensification strategy pursued by one person may provide an opportunity for another person's agricultural processing or petty trading livelihood diversification strategy. By contrast, another type of agricultural intensification may undercut others' strategies by diverting such factors as land, labour, credit or markets (Carswell, 1997). Similarly, in relation to livelihood diversification, it may make sense for individuals to specialize, while households diversify, or whole villages may specialize in a particular activity, in context of highly diversified regional economy (Carswell, 1997). When assessing livelihood sustainability, therefore, an appreciation of scale issues must lead to a critical examination of such questions across hierarchical levels.

The combination of activities that are pursued can be seen as a 'livelihood portfolio' (Shankland, 2000). Some of the portfolios may be highly specialized with a concentration on one or limited range of activities; others may be quite diverse (Shankland, 2000). Different livelihood pathways are evident over different time-scales (Hussein & Nelson, 1998). The authors assert that a livelihood pathway can be seen as the result of a series of livelihood choices that have emerged over time. They further argue that this may have

been the consequence of a set of conscious and planned choices or the result of the unintended consequences of other actions.

Over seasons and between years, variations in option emerge (Chambers, 1989). Scoones (1998) asserts that equally, within domestic cycles different combinations of strategies may be pursued sequentially, depending on changes in dependency ratios, health conditions and other factors. According to Lipton (2001), over longer periods-over several generations, for example-more substantial shifts in combinations may occur, as local and external conditions change. They further note that it is this dynamic element, evident in the composition and recomposition of livelihood strategies, which is important to examine, especially in the context of assessing the sustainability of different options.

Hussein and Nelson (1998) note that degree of specialization or diversification may relate to the resource endowments available and the level of risk associated with alternative options. To Scoones (1998), five alternatives can be identified: Livelihood resources may be accumulated so that reserves and buffers are created for times when stresses and shocks are felt; activities associated with different livelihood strategies may be spread over space or over time, such that a particular risk, such as drought event, does not affect all livelihood activities; the mix of activities may be changed to reduce the covariance among different sources of stress or shock; risk pooling options may be employed through various forms of insurance or consumption smoothing, so the effects of shock or stress are ameliorated; and , finally the overall resilience of the system may be enhanced such that the impacts of stresses and shocks are less dramatically felt.

Whether such livelihood pathways and portfolio combinations result in positive or negative change in relation to the range of sustainable livelihood outcome indicators is a

critical issue (Davies, 2006). Several issues are important here. It is not only the total number of sustainable livelihoods created that is important, but also the level of livelihood intensity (Chambers, 1989). Chambers (1989) further notes that livelihood resources may be combined creatively and innovatively, often in complex ways, to create more livelihoods in a particular area. For example, degraded land may be transformed with the investment of labour and skill, resulting in the accumulation of natural capital, offering the potential for more livelihood opportunities (Chambers, 1989). Equally, through the creation of local economic linkages and the recirculation of knowledge, skills and resources, livelihood intensity may be increased (Solesbury, 2003). Thus, investigating the multiplier effects (both positive and negative) of particular options is an important issue in assessing sustainable livelihood outcomes (Solesbury, 2003). The impacts of one person's livelihood activities on others, both now and in the future is thus important. The net effects of investing in one set of livelihood strategies therefore need to be assessed, with future impacts discounted appropriately (Chambers & Conway, 1992). Livelihood strategies are often heavily reliant on the natural resource base (Scoones, 1998). He additionally noted that studies have examined livelihood strategy choices along gradients running from relatively high to low natural resource endowment. Such a gradient is also related to the level of risk and uncertainty experienced by resource users, with low natural endowment areas being frequently subject to drought or natural disasters (Chambers & Conway, 1992). According to the authors although such areas may have higher levels of risk relative to income than high resource endowment sites, the absolute income loss is also an important factor differentiating sites along such resource

endowment gradients. Livelihood portfolios can therefore be expected to differ along such natural resource endowment gradients (Scoones, 1998).

Socio-economic differences, of course, exist within any site, and these also have a major impact on the composition of livelihood portfolios (Solesbury, 2003). A wide number of axes of difference are relevant, including contrasts of asset ownership, income levels, gender age, religious affiliation, caste, social or political status and so on (Scoones, 1998). These may refer to differences in basic livelihood resources (for access to different forms of ‘capital’) or to broader contextual factors.

2.3.5 Livelihood outcomes

Establishing indicators of outcomes requires a precise answer to the question: what is sustainable livelihood? The now burgeoning literature on this subject is not particularly clear on this question. As with the now well-established term ‘sustainable development’, there are often uneasy compromises between different objectives embedded in the same definition (Scoones, 1998). The term ‘sustainable livelihoods’ relates to a wide set of issues which encompass much of the broader debate about the relationships between poverty and environment.

Three key elements of the definition can be recognized, each relating to a wider literature with, in some cases, established way of assessing outcomes (Chambers & Conway, 1992). The livelihood outcomes focus on, linking concerns over work and employment with poverty reduction with broader issues of adequacy, security, well-being and capability (Solesbury, 2003).

- i) Creation of working days: This relates to the ability of a particular combination of livelihood strategies to create gainful employment. Solesbury

(2003) notes three aspects of employment; income (a wage for the employed), production (employment providing a consumable output) and recognition (where employment provides recognition for being engaged in something worthwhile). Overall, the number of livelihoods created will be dependent on the proportion of the population available for work.

- ii) Well-being and capabilities: The notions of ‘well-being’ (Chambers, 1989) and ‘capability’ (Sen, 2000) provide a wider definitional scope for livelihoods concept. Sen sees capabilities as ‘what people can do or be with their entitlements’, a concept which encompasses far more than the material concerns of food intake or income. Such ideas represent more than the human capital which allows people to do things, but also the intrinsically valued elements of ‘capability’ or ‘well-being’. Chambers (1989) argues that such a well-being approach to poverty and livelihood analysis may allow people themselves to define the criteria which are important. This may result in a range of sustainable livelihood outcome criteria, including diverse factors such as self-esteem, security, happiness, stress, vulnerability, power, exclusion, as well as more conventionally measured material concerns (Solesbury, 2003).
- iii) Livelihood adaptation, vulnerability and resilience: The ability of a livelihood to be able to cope with and recover from stresses and shocks is central to the definition of sustainable livelihoods. Such resilience in the face of stresses and shocks is key to both livelihood adaptation and coping (Davies, 2006). Those who are unable to cope (temporary adjustments in the face of change) or adapt



“.....assets are vehicles for instrumental actions (making living), hermeneutic action (making living meaningful) and emancipator action

(challenging the structures under which one makes a living)” (Bebbington, 1999: 2022)

There is nothing inherent in particular.... Good or service that makes at a priori either an endowment or an entitlement. Instead the distinction between them depends on empirical context and on time, within a cyclical process. What are entitlements at one time may, in turn, represent endowment at another time from which a new set of entitlements may be derived (Leach, 1999).

What this dichotomy questions are the holistic nature of the approach because actors do not live their lives as an either/or option whereby on the one hand, it is classified in terms of assets, and on the other time-sensitive livelihood assessment. Given that the dichotomy of assets and outcomes is not black and white, and that assets have intra-cluster and inter-cluster synergy, then it is prudent to allocate livelihood assets and livelihood outcomes a single position in SLA. Such a real conceptualization recognizes the fact that assets are both means to and an end from livelihood strategy. As key variables in livelihood practices, assets therefore cannot be dissociated from the resulting livelihood outcomes; they are consumed, produced and invested only for better portfolio status.

From the above discussions a revised framework is shown below. Here the vulnerability concept as is used in the framework is also excluded because of its inclination to poverty analysis given that vulnerability is seen as both a condition and process of being poor and hence is mainly used in reference to livelihood shocks and stresses. Thus, in line with Banchirigah's (2008) accession that, 'poverty and the reasons for poverty have to be understood through a detailed analysis of social relations in a particular context', the

vulnerability context is substituted with livelihood practices that exemplifies how the making of, and the meanings.

2.3.6 Conceptual Framework

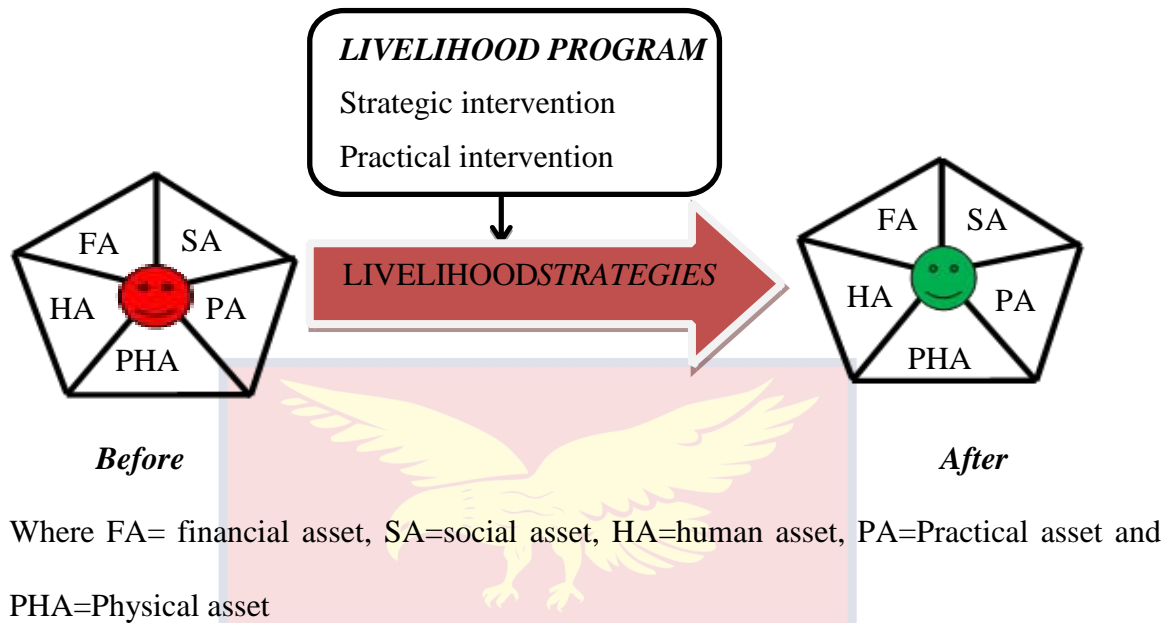
Figure 2 depicts the key dimensions of Sustainable Livelihoods adopted for this study. A livelihood is sustainable when it can cope with and recover from stresses and shocks and maintain or enhance its capabilities and assets both now and in the future thus making assets the building blocks of a sustainable livelihood. By building assets, individuals and households are able to develop and build their capacity to cope with the challenges they encounter and to meet their needs on a sustained basis. This framework thus draws attention to the variety of assets that contribute to making a sustainable livelihood and to ways in which they are interdependent. It identifies five broad categories of assets: Financial, Social, Physical, Human and Personal.

Financial assets for the purpose of this framework encompasses, income from productive activities such as employment (self/ institutional), available finance/savings, regular inflow of money from: credit rating and access to credit. Social assets cover cooperation, networks, interconnectedness, family support, friendships, relationships of trust/exchanges, partnerships and collaboration. Human assets include skills (including technical and interpersonal), knowledge, ability, employability and earning power, good health and leadership. Physical assets look at child/elder care, secured shelter, clean affordable energy, information, banking and access to related services, basic consumer goods, affordable transportation, tools and equipment, natural resources while personal assets consist of motivation, self-esteem, self-confidence, self-perception, emotional well-being, and assertiveness.

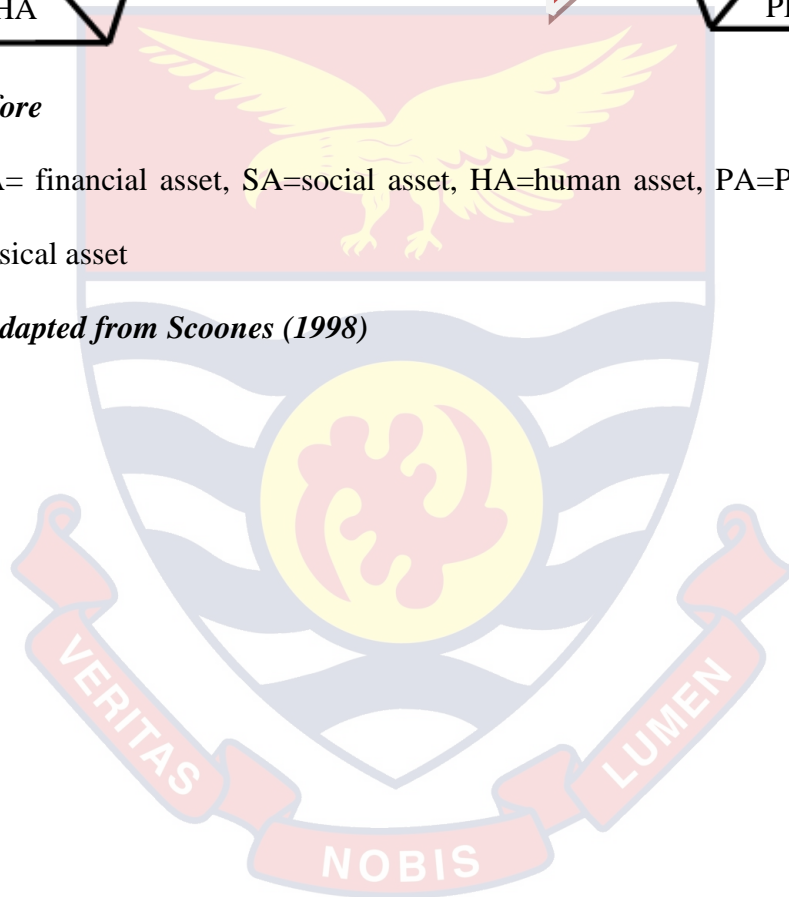
Asset or capacity building models focus attention on developing the underlying resources and capacities needed to escape poverty on a sustainable basis. They depict the critical mass of assets needed to cope with stresses and shocks, and to maintain and enhance capabilities now and in the future. They recognize that everyone has assets on which to build and support individuals and families to acquire assets needed for long-term well-being. The framework identifies two basic types of intervention: Strategic and Practical Interventions. Practical interventions facilitate the efforts of low-income households to build their livelihood assets. They include such things as education, employment training, economic literacy and savings programs, and support for small business development. Strategic interventions on the other hand are directed toward the goal of social and economic change at the systemic level.

The state of individuals before the introduction of the livelihood programmes is represented in the diagram. As everyone has some level of assets, here the individuals before the programmes are identified with few financial, social, human, personal and physical assets. The after effect of the programmes is represented in the diagram. As there are improvements in the standard of living in the lives of individuals, this diagram indicates the enhancement in the assets of the beneficiaries of the livelihood programmes.

Figure 2: Conceptual Framework



Source: Adapted from Scoones (1998)



CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This chapter discusses the research design, the study area, target population, sampling technique and sample size, data collection instrument, data processing and analysis and the sources of data are also included in this chapter.

3.2 Study Area

The study area is the Upper Denkyira East Municipality. It is one of the twenty (20) districts in the Central Region of Ghana. It lies within latitudes 5° , 30° and 6° , North of the equator and longitudes 1° W and 2° W of the Greenwich Meridian. It shares common boundaries with Adansi South in the North, Assin District in the East and Twifo Hemang Lower Denkyira West District in the North-West. The Upper Denkyira East Municipality covers a total land area of 1020 square kilometers, which is about 10% of the total land area of the Central Region. Its capital is Dunkwa-on-Offin. It is a mining community.

Upper Denkyira East Municipality has a total population of 72,810 with the females dominating. The males constitute 49.2 percent of the total population while the females constitute 50.8 percent of the total population. The sex ration of the municipality is therefore 96.7. What this means is, for every 97 males, there are approximately 100 females (Ghana Statistical Service , 2012). Further information on the study area is shows that, the population among urban and rural localities are 35,790 (49.2%) and 37,020 (50.8%) respectively (Ghana Statistical Service , 2012). What this means, majority of the population of Upper Denkyira East Municipality are those in the rural localities.

Added to the background of the study area, the highest proportion of the population is the proportion for the ages 14 years where as ages 0-4 records 12.9 percent of the total proportion of Upper Denkyira East Municipality. This is followed by ages 10-14 (13.0%), with 52.4 percent for males and 50.2 percent for females. The age structure of the Municipality is therefore relatively youthful.

The increasing in migration to the municipality due to the presence of gold mining activities, coupled with the destruction of the farmlands as well as rivers which are the main sources of livelihoods for the inhabitants has rendered some of the residents vulnerable and poor.

With regard to the religious affiliations of the dwellers of Upper Denkyira East Municipality, the Pentecostal or Charismatic are the majority (28.8%), followed by Protestants (20.2%), other Christians (18.6%), Catholics (15.2%) and Islam (10.9%) (Ghana Statistical Service , 2012). Proportion of all the religious affiliation is higher among the males with the exception of Islam where the proportion of males (11.8%) is higher than that of the females (10.0%). About 6 percent of the population has no religious affiliation. It is worth nothing that the population of males with no religious affiliation (7.9%) is higher than the female population in the same category (3.4%). Traditionalist recorded the lowest percentage (0.3%) for both sexes.

Also, 66.3 percent of the population in the Upper Denkyira East Municipality is literate in English and Ghanaian language, followed by 21.6 percent representing those who are literate in English only, whereas only 0.2 percent of the people in the Municipality are literate in English and French combined (Ghana Statistical Service , 2012).



The informants involved officials of the Municipal Assembly and Beneficiaries of the Oil Palm Plantation Program. The informants comprised of the Municipal Chief Executive, Municipal Coordinating Director, Municipal Planning Officer, and Municipal Finance Officer.

3.4 Sample Size

The total sample size for the study is 121. This comprises of two officials from the Minerals Development Fund namely the Mining Community Development Scheme Coordinator and the Research Officer, four officials from the Upper Denkyira East Municipal Assembly and 115 beneficiaries of the Oil Palm Plantation Programme in the 5 communities. In terms of the beneficiaries, a ballot was casted. Those who pick a “yes folded paper” were selected as respondents. And out of these 115 were selected. The total population for the study is approximately 484 of informants and beneficiaries of the alternative livelihood programme.

According to Maguenda & Maguenda (2003), an approximate sample should be between 10%-30% of the population of the study (Maguenda O. M., 2003). Owing to the size of the sample frame, a twenty-five per cent (25%) sample size was selected for purposes of this study.

Sample size of students = $\frac{25}{100} \times 484 = 121$. Table 1 shows the distribution of the sample size for the study.

Table 1: Distribution of sample size for the study

| Target population | Population | Sample |
|--|------------|------------|
| MDF officials | 9 | 2 |
| Upper Denkyira East Municipal Assembly | 12 | 4 |
| Oil Palm Programme beneficiaries | 463 | 115 |
| Total | 484 | 121 |

Source: Field Work, 2019

3.5 Types and Sources of Data

To ensure that the result of the study is credible different types of data, namely: qualitative data and quantitative data were collected. These were employed also as a result of the nature of the design of the study. Qualitative data are data which are in the form of texts, observations, pictures and other materials are obtained through interviews, group discussions and personal observations and so are coded – given numerical values to represent categories of a particular variable. For instance, the variable *Gender* on the questionnaire was a form of qualitative data and was coded as 1 and 2 for *Male* and *Female* respectively. Quantitative data, on the other hand, are those which are already numbers in their raw states and that do not require any form of coding. For this reason, the values hold meaning in their basic forms.

The study used both primary and secondary sources in gathering the data. The difference between these sources of data being that whilst the primary source concerns raw unprocessed data which have been collected straight from the field, secondary source deals with data have been already worked on such as data from reports, books and published documents.

Primary and secondary data sources were used in the study. Primary data was gathered from the key informants and the beneficiaries through observations and interviews. An interview guide during meetings guided all interviews.

Secondary data from the Mining Community Development Scheme of the MDF on list of projects on alternatives livelihoods as well as beneficiaries of such projects was used. This was used to identify the projects and the beneficiaries so as to form the sampling. Also, additional information that may help ascertain the prior livelihood conditions of residents in the Municipality from the Municipal Assembly was used.

In consonance with the mixed method approach, three main research instruments were used for this study. These were interview guide, observation checklist and interview schedule.

Interviews are very important in qualitative research, especially in case studies. They help the researcher capture direct quotations about people's perspectives and experiences. An interview guide is unstructured (Fontana & Frey 2005), series of questions as pertained to the objective of a study. The interview guide was be used on the key informants comprising the MDF officials and the officials of the Municipal Assembly.

The interview schedule was used for the beneficiaries of the Oil Palm Plantation Programme in the (5) communities in the municipality. The interview schedule will be structured into four (4) sections and contained both open ended and close ended questions. The first section focused on the previous economic activities they were engaged in before the introduction of the Oil Palm Plantation Programme. The second section of the interview schedule centered on the nature of the Oil Palm Plantation Programme that have been introduced by the Government. The third section of the

interview schedule of the interview was on the impact of the Oil Palm Plantation Programme on the livelihoods of the beneficiaries. The last section of the interview schedule will focus on the socio-demographics of the beneficiaries.

Questions were structured in the English language. The interview guide was administered in the English language while the interview schedule was administered in a local language (Twi). This is to enable the respondents to express themselves well without any language barrier and to feel at home with the interviewer.

In order to cross check some of the information provided in the interview, observation will be used. The observation was used only on the beneficiaries. The observation will be done after the interview.

Among other things that were observed include the beneficiaries' living conditions. At this point, it was possible to observe socio-economic status of the beneficiaries under study by looking at the nature and state of their houses, whether permanent or not. In addition, their household conditions will be checked. This approach is most likely to assist in collecting data in a "naturally" or "situational" or at least in a contextual setting (Mason, 2002) to augment the data from the interviews.

3.5 Sampling Technique

In accordance with the mixed method approach, the study employed both a probability and non-probability sampling technique. In terms of the nonprobability sampling, the purposive sampling technique was applied to select the key informants. Purposive or judgement sampling procedure is based on the assumption that the researcher is able to select elements which are relevant representative of the appropriate target group (Ross, 2001; Sarantakos, 1998). This sampling technique was chosen because in the researcher's

opinion is thought to be relevant to the topic under study. In the case of the topic under study, not all implementers of the ALP will have in-depth insights into issues regarding the implementation process.

In view of this scenario, the researcher purposely selected the few officers in charge of the implementation namely the Scheme coordinator and the Research officer. Again, the purposive sampling was used to select the key informants from the Municipal Assembly comprising the Municipal Chief Executive, Municipal Planning Officer, Municipal Coordinating director, and Municipal finance officer. This is because these target respondents are those who may have exclusive knowledge on any collaboration that may exist between the assembly and MLNR/ MDF in terms of implementing the ALP.

3.6 Data Processing and Analysis

Patton (2002) for instance, mentions different forms of analysis, which include unique case orientation, holistic perspectives, context sensitivity, voice perspectives and reflexivity, and inductive analysis and creative synthesis. With this, emerging themes from the data were coded and put into themes. Data from the interview schedule was edited, coded, and keyed into the Statistical Package for Service Solutions (SPSS) version 17 for further analysis. Both descriptive and inferential statistics were used to analyze that data from the interview schedule.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

4.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the analysis, results, and discussion of the study. Issues covered include the economic activities that were in place before the introduction of Oil Palm Plantation Program in the communities, the impacts of the Oil Palm Production on the livelihood of beneficiaries, the challenges the government face in implementing the intervention and explore the kind of collaboration that exists between District and the MLNR/MDF in implementing the oil palm production program.

4.2 MLNR/MDF Collaboration with Upper Denkyira East Municipal Assembly

Collaboration with institutional stakeholders is key in determining the success of ALPs in communities where these stakeholders hold majority share in the resource base (Hilson and Yakovleva, 2007). It has been established that in situations where the power structure in the community is particularly skewed to one of these stakeholders, there need to be an established relationship between the implementing agency and such a stakeholder to ensure a better implementation process (Aryee, 2001). In this regard, the Upper Denkyira East Municipality which is the major formal power holder in terms of governance in the study area was involved in the study. This was necessary to ascertain the kind of collaborations that exists between them and MLNR/MDF with regard to the implementation of the OPP project.

Four main officials from the Upper Denkyira East were therefore involved in the study namely the Municipal Chief Executive, Municipal Coordinating Director, Municipal Planning Officer, and Municipal Finance Officer.

Generally, they were asked to comment on how the Assembly have cooperated with MLNR/MDF in implementing the ALPs.

The results from the IDIs indicated that there is a good relationship between the Assembly and MLNR/MDF in terms of implementing the OPP project. Indeed, it was revealed that as part of the collaboration in implementing the OPP, the Municipal Assembly and MLNR/MDF has set up Local Management Committees (LMCs) chaired by the Municipal Chief Executive and an official of the MLNR in the community being its secretary. The LMC is inaugurated by the MDF Board. For instance, the Municipal Chief Executive (MCE) had this to say about the existing collaboration with regard to the ALP:

“The Assembly has a strong link with MDF in general and specifically the Mining Community Development Scheme as far as the implementation and Management of the Oil Palm Plantation Programme is concerned. They (MDF) consult us every time they want to take any major decision with regards to the projects under the ALP.”

Lastly, another area of collaboration with MLNR/MDF is in terms of providing technical services by the district Agric officers of MOFA. These personnel are associated with the Municipal Assembly since the Assembly is the political administrative authority in the Municipality, MOFA offices at the district level is associated with the Municipal Assembly. All the four key informants agreed that the district Agric officers attend to MLNR/MDF projects when needed. The MCE said:

“The collaboration that exists between us and MDF is such that Agric Extension officers usually go and offer them advice on how to take care of their farms in the area of pegging, planting, application of weedicides and pesticides etc”.

4.3 Nature of previous economic activities

The success of the oil palm program has been found to correlate with the nature of the economic activities that were originally in place (Banchirigah, 2008). Thus, the success or otherwise of the program to be introduced will largely depend on the extent to which the beneficiaries relied on it and also the competitiveness of the program in relation to the previous economic activity. If the situation is such that the nature of the previous economic activities is more appealing in terms of its ability to make them their livelihoods than the oil palm production, then the sustainability of the program will be in doubt. It is therefore important for a study of this nature to explore the previous economic activities in place in comparison to the new intervention.

With regard to this, respondents who are mainly beneficiaries of the oil palm production program were asked to indicate the previous economic activities they were engaged in prior to the introduction of the program. Table 2 shows the various economic activities engaged prior to the introduction of the ALPs as well as beneficiaries' level of satisfaction with those economic activities.

Table 2: Beneficiaries level of satisfaction with previous economic activities

| Economic Activity | LEVEL OF SATISFACTION | | | |
|-------------------|-----------------------|------------|---------------|------------|
| | Satisfied | | Not satisfied | |
| | Freq. | Percentage | Freq. | Percentage |
| Farming | 38 | 33.1% | 77 | 66.9% |
| Tailoring | 55 | 47.8% | 60 | 52.2% |
| Galamsey | 104 | 90.4% | 11 | 9.6% |
| Other | 6 | 5.2% | 109 | 94.8% |

Source: Field Work, 2019

The various economic activities engaged in by the beneficiaries prior to the introduction of the oil palm production program included farming, tailoring, galamsey and others such as trading and carpentry (Table 2). Evidence from Table 2 indicates that the majority of the beneficiaries of the program were initially into Galamsey (104) whilst tailoring constituted the second highest employment which employed (55) of the beneficiaries. This finding is consistent with the observation made by (Banchirigah, 2008) that most of the inhabitants of the mining communities in Ghana have their original occupation they depend on for their livelihoods and such economic activities are usually imbibed in local technologies. Thus, given the study setting, which lies in the forest belt of Ghana, it is not surprising that a significant number of the beneficiaries were previously engaged in farming. Also, most mining communities in Ghana tend to attract a significant number of inhabitants into other secondary occupations as a means of livelihood (Aryee, 2001).

Galamsey (a popular form of illegal mining in Ghana) employed five (11) of the beneficiaries. Similarly, a small number of the beneficiaries (6) identified their previous economic activities as other which mainly comprised of petty trading and carpentry. In

order to assess the real sustainability potential of the oil palm production program, the study deemed it fit to measure the beneficiaries' level of satisfaction with their previous economic activities so as to enable a comparison with the current program. Kitula (2006) indicated that it is important for any study that intends to measure the sustainability of Alternative Livelihood Programs (ALP) not to only determine the previous economic activities, but also to ascertain the extent to which the beneficiaries were satisfied with such activities as compared to the alternatives offered by the ALPs. Table 2 shows the level of satisfaction of the beneficiaries with their previous economic activities.

According to Table 2, most of the beneficiaries who were initially engaged in farming indicated that they were not satisfied (66.9%) with it as an economic activity. This finding may be attributed to the fact that the study area is mainly a gold mining community which has a lot of average to wealthy inhabitants who usually require the services of tailors and hence offered them regular incomes. However, this finding is interesting given the background that this occupation employed most of the beneficiaries and thus, it is expected that the new program should have been rated better in terms of meeting needs (Shankland, 2000).

Furthermore, (90.4%) of those engaged in galamsey indicated they were satisfied whilst (9.6%) of them said they were dissatisfied. Perhaps, the high incomes earned from the galamsey activities which the oil palm production might not be able to meet might have contributed to all of them indicating they were satisfied with their previous job. Interestingly, most of the beneficiaries who were previously engaged in other jobs such as carpentry and petty trading indicated they were dissatisfied. The lower incomes that may

have accrued from such jobs as compared to the alternatives offered by the ALP might have contributed to the high levels of dissatisfaction.

4.4 Nature of the Oil Palm Production program for the beneficiaries

Alternative livelihood programmes introduced are usually meant to provide an alternative to the target because their previous means of livelihood has been lost. To be sustainable however, the ALP has to be carved in close association with the local economic environment and should emanate from within the community (Amankwah and Anim-Sackey, 2003; Hilson and Porter, 2005). It has therefore been argued that the success or failure of such ALPs to a large extent depends on the nature of the ALPs themselves and how far they are able to improve on the well-being of the beneficiaries (Tschakert, 2009).

The oil palm production introduced by MLNR/MDF to compensate the inhabitants for their resources being used for Gold mining were gauged against the beneficiaries' level of satisfaction with it. Respondents were asked to indicate their level of satisfaction with the oil palm plantation program. However, to enable easy analysis of the level of satisfaction with the program, the three satisfaction levels (very satisfied, satisfied and not satisfied) used to gauge the level of satisfaction was collapsed into two (satisfied and not satisfied). The result of the analysis is presented in Table 3.

The previous economic activities of the beneficiaries were compared with the current intervention in order to assess which of the two the beneficiaries preferred. This is to give an indication of the beneficiaries' assessment of their previous economic activities as compared to the current one they were engaged in. In this regard, respondents were asked to indicate whether they preferred their previous economic activities to the alternative offered currently as well as their reasons. The result is shown in Table 3.

Evidence from Table 3 suggests that as many as 72.2% of the respondents indicated that they did not prefer their previous jobs to the alternatives offered by the intervention because their previous jobs did not provide them with relatively higher income as compared to the oil palm production. This finding is consistent with the assertion made by Ashley and Carney (1999) that alternative livelihoods provided by ALPs tend to offer the beneficiaries higher incomes than their previous occupations.

Table 3: Reasons for preferring previous economic activity to oil palm production

| Economic Activity | Yes | | No | |
|-------------------|-------|------------|-------|------------|
| | Freq. | Percentage | Freq. | Percentage |
| High Income | 32 | 27.8% | 83 | 72.2% |
| Tedious | 22 | 19.1% | 93 | 80.9% |
| Low Income | 17 | 14.8% | 98 | 85.2% |
| Consistent Income | 15 | 13.0% | 100 | 87.0% |
| Lower risk | 86 | 74.8% | 29 | 25.2% |

Source: Fieldwork, 2019

Also, (19.1%) of the beneficiaries indicated that they preferred their previous jobs to those offered by the oil palm production (OPP) because the current jobs under the OPP are more tedious. Perhaps this is understandable in the context that since it provides higher income than the previous jobs then one may expect it to be more tedious. Interestingly, 26.3% of the beneficiaries also indicated that they preferred their previous jobs to the current OPP because the latter provided lower income. Perhaps those beneficiaries who were previously involved in galamsey operations might have higher income than any current job under the OPP.

Furthermore, it has also been argued that even though it is generally expected that the alternative livelihoods may provide higher incomes, some of the ALPs actually result in lower incomes and as such become poor alternatives (de Han and Zoomers, 2005). Also, 15% of the beneficiaries indicated that they preferred their previous jobs to the current ALP due to its ability to provide consistent income whilst 74.8% of them said they did not prefer the previous job (galamsey) to the current one due to its high risk. This implies that they actually preferred the ALP to their previous jobs because the ALP has lower risks. The beneficiaries who were initially engaged in galamsey operations might have chosen the ALP due to its relatively lower risks and hence accounted for that finding.

4.5 Dimensions of the nature of the Alternative Livelihood Programme

The dimensions of the nature of every Alternative Livelihood Programme (ALP) tend to provide an insight into the perceptions and the extent to which such ALPs are likely to be sustainable in the long term (Banchirigah, 2008). In fact, various success levels have been observed in ALPs based on the dimensions of the ALP in different parts of the world (Aubynn, 2009) hence bringing to the fore the need to measure the beneficiaries' assessment of the dimensions of ALPs. Beneficiaries' assessment of the various dimensions of ALPs can therefore be used as a strong predictor of their support for the ALP (Tschakert, 2009). Table 4 shows the various dimensions of the nature of the ALP captured in the study.

Evidence from Table 4 suggests that the beneficiaries of the OPP were almost unanimous (85.2%) in agreeing that the OPP they are engaged in is more tedious than their previous jobs. This finding is consistent with the observation made by Ellis (2000) that based on the periodic meetings, and training programs that beneficiaries of OPP have to engage

themselves in that were hitherto not associated with their previous jobs, the OPP are perceived as tedious and hence very stressful. Again, the flexibility offered by the previous jobs of the beneficiaries may be lacking in the current jobs offered by the OPP since everything is formalized and this might have led to them perceiving the OPP being more stressful.

The mean ratings of other dimensions of the nature of the OPP from Table 4 indicates that most of the beneficiaries agreed (2.468) that the jobs offered by the OPP are more time consuming than those they were previously engaged in. This is as expected since most of them already indicated that the OPP is more tedious than their previous jobs. Meanwhile, the beneficiaries disagreed (2.808) that the current OPP is more lucrative than their previous jobs. This therefore implies that the beneficiaries believed their previous jobs were more lucrative than the OPP. This is however inconsistent with the findings of Banchirigah (2008) that beneficiaries tend to rate the alternative livelihoods provided by ALPs as being more lucrative than their previous jobs. Perhaps the seasonal nature of the OPP may be responsible for the current intervention being less lucrative in the eyes of the beneficiaries in the Upper Denkyira East Municipality.

Further, the beneficiaries disagreed that they are able to meet their household needs better than before due to the introduction of the OPP. This indicates that the current job offered by the OPP is not able to help the beneficiaries meet their household needs better. Thus, their previous jobs were able to help them meet their household needs better than the current alternatives under the ALPs. However, authors like Kitula (2006) have argued that some of the ALPs are introduced without adequate feasibility studies and hence often result in the deterioration of the livelihoods of the intended beneficiaries instead of

improving on it and this might have accounted for the OPP not making the beneficiaries able to adequately meet their household needs as noted above.

Table 4: Nature of Alternative Livelihood

| Response | Frequency (N=115) | Percentage (100%) |
|---|----------------------|----------------------|
| The nature of ALP I am engaged in is tedious than my previous occupation | 98 | 85.2% |
| The ALP I am engaged in is more time consuming than my previous job | 81 | 70.4% |
| This current job is more lucrative than my previous job. | 54 | 47.0% |
| This current job is able to meet my household needs than before. | 52 | 45.2% |
| This current job is less hazardous to the environment than my previous job. | 36 | 31.3% |
| This current OPP project does not conflict with my cultural beliefs. | 48 | 41.7% |
| This current OPP project does not conflict with my religious beliefs. | 50 | 43.5% |
| This current OPP project does not conflict with the community's cultural beliefs. | 50 | 43.5% |

Source: Field Work 2019

In terms of the negative impacts of the OPP, the beneficiaries agreed that the OPP is less hazardous (31.3%) to the environment than their previous jobs (Table 4). This finding

might be accounted for by the fact that the beneficiaries who were initially engaged in farming were using crude farming methods as opposed to a more modern method under the ALP. Additionally, the beneficiaries agreed (41.7%) that the OPP does not conflict with their cultural beliefs. In this sense, the project is not likely to suffer termination due to cultural reasons. Again, the beneficiaries agreed (43.5%) that the OPP does not conflict with their religious beliefs (Table 4), also implying that the project may not suffer within the religious context. In terms of the communities' cultural beliefs, the study shows that the OPP does not conflict with it. Thus, as far as the cultural beliefs and values of the residents of the various communities are concerned, the project fits well in it.

4.6 Effects of the ALPs on the Livelihood of the beneficiaries

The impact of the OPP on the livelihoods of beneficiaries tends to vary considerably (Moser, 1998). The extent to which these impacts vary largely depends on the beneficiaries' expectations of the ALP as well as the assets they have sacrificed for the ALP (Bebbington, 1999). Meanwhile, the assessment of the impact on the beneficiaries has long term implications for the sustainability of the OPP such that if the impact is perceived to be positive, there is the likelihood of the beneficiary's continual engagement in it while they are likely to back out if the impacts are negative. The impact of the ALP in the communities in the Upper Denkyira East Municipality was measured and the results are presented in Table 5.

Table 5: Influence of the Alternative Livelihood on Beneficiaries

| Response | Frequency (N=115) | Percentage (100%) |
|--|----------------------|----------------------|
| The OPP has helped me improve my standard of living. | 26 | 22.6 |
| The OPP has increased my income level. | 22 | 19.1 |
| The OPP has helped me acquire more properties. | 17 | 14.8 |
| The OPP has helped me improve my social status. | 29 | 25.2 |
| The OPP has helped me improve the environment in this community. | 21 | 18.3 |
| Total | 115 | 100 |

Source: Field Work, 2019

Evidence from Table 5 indicates that majority of the beneficiaries (22.6%) are of the view that the OPP has helped them improve on their standard of living. On the average, the beneficiaries are happy with the impact of the OPP on their general standard of living. This is consistent with the findings of (Beall, 2002) in southern Bangladesh that irrespective of the individual assessment of ALPs, the beneficiaries are likely to be averagely happy with ALPs due to other freedom and security it offers them.

Further, most (19.1%) of the beneficiaries also agreed that the OPP have impacted positively on their income levels. This finding is not surprising since it is usually expected ALPs should offer better alternatives than previously existing economic activities otherwise beneficiaries are likely to drop out. With regard to the ability of the OPP to help the beneficiaries to acquire more properties, the beneficiaries disagreed (14.8%) that the OPP has actually helped them acquire more properties. This therefore

gives an indication that the increase in income as a result of the ALPs is not substantial enough to result in acquisition of capital goods but rather just to sustain the beneficiaries in their daily household expenses.

However, most of the beneficiaries agreed (25.2%) that the OPP have helped improved their social status in their communities. This finding may have resulted from the fact that most of the beneficiaries are able to meet their daily household needs and perhaps do not go out to buy foodstuff and other commodities on credit and hence accounting for the improved social image or status. In terms of environmental quality, the beneficiaries agreed (18.3%) that the OPP has helped to improve the general environmental quality as compared to their previous economic activities. Perhaps the switch of more beneficiaries from other occupations such as galamsey to more environmentally friendly occupation and in this case farming, has resulted in the respondents' perception of improvement in the general environmental quality. On the overall, the beneficiaries agreed that the introduction of the OPP by MLNR/MDF has impacted positively on their livelihoods mainly in the areas of standard of living, income levels, acquisition of capital goods (properties), improvement in social status and the communities' environment.

4.7 Challenges in the implementation of Alternative Livelihood Programme

The implementation of alternative livelihood programmes like other social interventions, are not without challenges. These challenges may arise from other stakeholders, laws and regulations governing the implementation of such programmes, resource constraints and the target beneficiaries themselves (Fraser, 2000; Tschakert, 2009). The nature or kind of challenge encountered particularly will depend on the kind of ALP being introduced and the resources being exchanged for such ALPs. Meanwhile, different challenges have been

reported in various research works in the area of alternative livelihood provisions. To therefore ascertain the kinds of challenges encountered by the main implementing agency of the ALP in the Upper Denkyira East Municipality, two main respondents from MDF who are in charge of the implementation of the ALPs were involved in the study. These were the Mining Community Development Scheme Coordinator and the Research Officer. These officers were responsible for the implementation of all ALPs by MDF. In-depth Interviews (IDI) was used to gather data from these respondents.

When these two respondents were asked to comment on the nature of ALPs introduced by MLNR/MDF in the five (5) selected communities in the Municipality, they both indicated that there was the OPP in place and the project was designed to provide the residents of these ML with alternative forms of livelihoods. For instance, the Mining Community Development Scheme Coordinator who is the head of the Department stated that:

“The only project now under the Alternative Livelihood Programme being implemented by our outfit in the Upper Denkyira East Municipality is the Oil Palm Plantation Project and this programme is spread in the communities where mining activities are concentrated.”

This indicates that MLNR/MDF did not just involve itself in the whole of the Municipality. Thus, even though it is generally thought that MLNR/MDF's activities span the whole of the Municipality, the Alternative Livelihood Programme was introduced in communities in which MLNR/MDF thought much of its resources have been taken for mining activities.

With regards to the challenges faced in the implementation of this project, the two respondents agreed that they initially had problems deciding on which projects to introduce in which community. This was because it was difficult to decide on the core jobs in each community so as not to spend a lot of money on training and not to bring jobs that are alien to the communities. The Research Officer had this to say:

“One of the main challenges encountered was which project to implement in the mining communities. We thought it wise to choose a project carefully. This was to ensure that the members of each of the communities were already familiar with the project. This also enabled us to meet our budget by not spending more to train and manage the projects after establishment.”

One other challenge they mentioned is the inability of the youth in the mining communities in accessing farm lands as the aged are mostly the ones that owns the lands and they do not readily give out these lands to the youth to farm though most often they cannot farm themselves as a result of old age.

In addition, the Research officer identified other challenges as lack of cooperation from stakeholders such as chiefs in releasing of land to the youth to use for farming.

Indeed, this revelation corroborates with the assertion made by Solesbury, (2003) that some of the mining concessions decide to introduce alternative livelihoods for residents whose means of livelihoods are lost due to mining, the efforts are sometimes thwarted by people in authority who will benefit in direct payment of royalties and compensations.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Introduction

This chapter reflects on the entire study. The chapter focuses on the summary of the research process, major findings, conclusions drawn, and recommendations to improve practice.

5.2 Summary

The purpose of the study was to assess the impact of the Oil Palm Production as sustainable Alternative Livelihood in the Upper Denkyira East Municipality as implemented by the MLNR/MDF.

Specifically, the study sought to:

- Examine the economic activities that were in place before oil palm production;
- Analyze the impact of Oil Palm Production on the livelihoods of inhabitants in the Upper Denkyira East Municipality;
- Explore the challenges encountered by the MLNR/MDF in the implementation of the oil palm production intervention;
- Explore the kind of collaboration that exists between the Municipality and the MLNR/MDF in implementing the oil palm production programme

Two main instruments were used in this study namely the interview schedule and in-depth interview guide (IDI). Both the quantitative and qualitative data collection was done simultaneously and lasted from 5th to 21st May 2019. The quantitative data was processed with the Statistical Package for Service Solutions (SPSS) version 13. Tables,

frequencies and percentages were used in presenting and describing the findings. The qualitative data was however, manually transcribed and presented under the appropriate themes.

5.3 Main findings

The main economic activities engaged in by beneficiaries of the ALPS were farming, tailoring, galamsey operations and others such as petty trading and carpentry. Tailoring previously employed most of the beneficiaries followed by farming, galamsey and others such as petty trading and carpentry.

Secondly, Most of the ALP beneficiaries who were previously engaged in tailoring (47.8%) indicated that they were dissatisfied with the tailoring job whereas those who were initially engaged in galamsey (90.4%) indicated they were satisfied with the galamsey work as well as those who were in farming (33.1%).

Also, most (33.1%) of the beneficiaries of the ALP indicated that they prefer the current ALP to their previous economic activities because of the high income offered by the ALP. Again, (19.1%) of the beneficiaries preferred their previous economic activities to the alternatives by the ALP because of the tedious nature of the ALP. Another (14.8%) said they preferred their previous economic activities to the current ones because of the low income offered by the ALPs. (13.0%) also preferred previous economic activities to ALP because of consistent income provided by the previous job. Interestingly, (74.8%) liked the ALP because of its lower risk compared to the previous job. Furthermore, the nature of the ALPs borders on the environmental, economic, and social aspects of the beneficiaries.

With regard to the impacts of the ALP, the beneficiaries agreed that it has impacted on their economic, social and environmental aspects of life.

The challenges faced by MLNR/MDF in implementing the ALP had to do with the difficulty in deciding on which projects will be sustainable in the communities and little corporation shown by chiefs in releasing land to the youth for farming.

Finally, MLNR/MDF collaboration with the Upper Denkyira East Municipal Assembly in implementing the ALP was very strong and MLNR/MDF received various support from the Assembly.

5.4 Conclusions

Based on the objectives of the study and the corresponding findings presented above, the following conclusions could be drawn.

Firstly, there were three main economic activities engaged in by the beneficiaries before the introduction of the ALP by MLNR/MDF. These were farming, tailoring and galamsey operations. These activities were in close association with the cultural and environmental resources of the study area.

Secondly, the project under the ALP introduced by the MLNR with funding from the MDF is the oil palm production. These projects are spread within four regions with the five selected communities being used as study area being part of the beneficiary communities.

Also, the ALP impacted on the beneficiaries positively. Specifically, it impacted on five spheres of their lives namely their standard of living, income levels, acquisition of properties, social status and the general environmental quality.

Furthermore, there were two main challenges encountered by MLNR/MDF in their implementation of the ALPS. These were indecision as to which project to introduce in the communities and also little corporation on the part of the chiefs of the communities to release land for farming.

Finally, MLNR/MDF had strong collaboration with the Upper Denkyira East Municipal Assembly on the implantation of the ALP. This was evident in the various supports they received from the Assembly in such areas as technical expertise by the district MOFA offices

5.5 Recommendations

In line with the main findings of this study and the conclusions drawn, the following recommendations are made for improving practice and for further research.

1. Since the second most engaged economic activity before the introduction of the ALP was crop farming, other crops such as cashew production should also be considered by MLNR/MDF to ensure diversification and the project develop around local expertise to guarantee sustainability.
2. MLNR/MDF should broaden the base of the projects under the ALPs in the municipality. Once most of the beneficiaries perceive the impacts of the ALPS to be positive on all spheres of their lives, the projects now have to be expanded to include other populace of the communities as well as municipality
3. Since, the ALP has benefited from the Upper Denkyira East Municipal Assembly and continue to benefit, MLNR/MDF should continue to pursue a stronger collaboration with the Upper Denkyira East Municipal Assembly so as to

continue to benefit from it. This will have a long-term impact on the success and the sustainability of the ALP

4. The study has added to the ongoing academic discourse in the area of alternative livelihoods. However, future studies can go further to explore beneficiaries' future intentions to continue with the ALP or not. This will serve as an important measure of the future sustainability of the ALP and the overall satisfaction of the project



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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

PRESBYTARIAN UNIVERSITY COLLEGE, GHANA

**QUESTIONNAIRE FOR BENEFICIARIES OF OIL PALM SEEDLINGS IN
SELECTED MINING COMMUNITIES OF THE UPPER DENKYIRA EAST
MUNICIPALITY**

Dear Sir/Madam,

This questionnaire is aimed at collecting information on the topic “Oil Palm Production as a Sustainable Alternative Livelihood in Mining Communities of the Upper Denkyira East Municipality, Ghana.”. This is towards the partial fulfillment of the requirements of a Masters of Arts in International Development Studies. Please, I assure you that any information provided would be treated with the deserving confidentiality and be used for purely academic purpose.

Section 1: Socio-demographics of beneficiaries

1. Sex of Respondent

a. Male () b. Female ()

2. Age

a. 18-25 () b. 26-30 () c. 31-35 () d. 36-40 () e. 41 above ()

3. Highest level of education

(a) No formal education (b) No formal education but can read and write

(c) Basic (Primary or JHS) (d) Secondary (SHS or Vocational/ Technical

(d) Tertiary (e) others, specify.....

4. Marital Status (a) Married (b) Single (c) Widow (d) Divorced (e) Separated

5. What is the size of your household.....

6. How many children do you have? Male(s) and (or) female(s) ...
7. Number of dependents.....
8. What is your relationship with dependents? (a) Parent(s) (b) Siblings (c)

Other

(Specify)

1. What was your previous occupation?

2. Section One: Previous economic activities of beneficiaries

- a. Farming
- b. Quarrying
- c. Galamsey
- d. Other
- e. Please Specify

3. How long did you spend in that occupation.....

4. What job are you currently engaged in

5. What is the maximum time spent on previous job?

6. What was the problem associated with previous job?
.....

7. What is the maximum time spent in current job?

8. How satisfied are you with your current job?

- a. Very satisfied
- b. Satisfied
- c. Not satisfied

9. How do you prefer your previous job to your current job?

.....

Section Two: Nature of ALP

1. Why were you chosen to participate in this project?

.....

.....

2. Which institution, association or organization is supporting you?.....

3. Where is the institution, association or organization located? (a) within the community (b) within the district (c) outside the district (d) other (specify)

a.

4. What kind of support are you receiving from the institution or organization?

a. loan

b. training (c) tools and equipment (d) land (e) products (f) market information

5. How did you qualify for the support?

6. What assets or money did you exchange for participating in this programme.....?

7. What kind of training did you receive for this programme?

Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the following statements about the nature of the current ALP you are involved in. The responses range from SA = strongly agree, A = agree, N = neutral, D = disagree and SD = strongly disagree.

| Statement | SA | A | N | D | SD |
|--|----|---|---|---|----|
| The OPP I am engaged in is tedious than my previous occupation | | | | | |
| The OPP I am engaged in is more time consuming than my previous job | | | | | |
| This current job is more lucrative than my previous job | | | | | |
| With this current job I am able to meet my household needs than before | | | | | |
| This current job is less hazardous to the environment than my previous job | | | | | |
| This current OPP project does not conflict with my cultural beliefs | | | | | |
| This current OPP does not conflict with my religious beliefs | | | | | |
| This current OPP does not conflict with this community's cultural values | | | | | |

Section three: Impacts of Oil Palm Production on the livelihoods of beneficiaries

Please indicate the extent to which the OPP you are involved has impacted on your livelihood in the following ways. The responses ranges from SA = strongly agree, A = agree, N = neutral, D = disagree, and SD = strongly disagree.

| Statement | SA | A | N | D | SD |
|---|----|---|---|---|----|
| The OPP has helped improve my standard of living | | | | | |
| The OPP has increased my income level | | | | | |
| The OPP has helped me meet my household needs | | | | | |
| The OPP has helped me acquire more properties | | | | | |
| The OPP has helped improved my social status | | | | | |
| The OPP has helped improved the environment in this community | | | | | |

APPENDIX B

PRESBYTARIAN UNIVERSITY COLLEGE, GHANA

INTERVIEW GUIDE FOR INFORMANTS

Dear Sir/Madam,

This questionnaire is aimed at collecting information on the topic “Oil Palm Production as a Sustainable Alternative Livelihood in Mining Communities of the Upper Denkyira East Municipality.)” This is towards the partial fulfillment of the requirements of a Masters of Arts in International Development Studies. Please, I assure you that any information provided would be treated with the deserving confidentiality and be used for purely academic purpose.

Respondents’ Demographics

1. How old are you?
2. In what capacity are you serving now?
3. How long have you served in this capacity?
4. How will you assess your overall performance in terms of implementing the Oil palm production in the District?

Issues on OPP in the District

5. When did MDF initiate the Oil Palm Programme in the District?
6. How many communities have you implemented such programmes?
7. How many projects do you have under the programmes?
8. What kind of projects have they implemented?
9. What necessitated the introduction of the programme?
10. Does each community’s programme depend on its specific needs? Probe

11. Did you consider the resource available in each community before introducing the programme?
12. What impacts do you think the Oil Palm Production have had on the residents of the communities you have introduced them? Probe for both positive and negative impacts
13. Do you think the Oil Palm Plantation Programme have been successful? Why?
14. What collaborations exist between the District Assembly and MDF in implementing the Programme?
15. How have you benefitted from these collaborations?
16. What do you think can be done to enhance the Oil Palm Production and the success achieved?
17. What are some of the challenges you encounter in the implementation of the Programme?
18. What do you think can be done to improve on the Oil Palm Production implemented by MDF?

Thank You